Representer Point Selection for Explaining Deep Neural Networks

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• Safety -- Is this car safe to ride in?



• Trust -- How can I trust you?



(image from Rebeiro et al.)

• Learn -- How can I become a better Go player?



• Improve -- How can I improve my model performance?



Before Training During Training

After Training







Model Class: Dog

Model: classified as a dog since it looks like other dogs.

Post-hoc Explanation: the model classify this as a dog because ...

Dataset analysis

Interpretable Model P

Post-hoc Explanation

Local Explanations

Global Explanations







Why is this image classified as a dog?

How did the model classify the images?

Feature-based explanations



Instance-based explanations

Model



Class: Dog

This picture is classified as a dog because of the bright pixels are used by the model:



This picture is classified as a dog because of these training images are labeled as dogs:



- Our model can be used in several settings:
 - Can be seen as an **interpretable model** and a **post-hoc explanation**.
 - Can be used as a **global explanation** and a **local explanation**.
 - Is mainly an instanced-based explanation, but can be combined with feature-based explanations.

Representer Theorem for RKHS

Theorem 1 (The Representer Theorem). Let k be a kernel on \mathcal{X} and let \mathcal{F} be its associated RKHS. Fix $x_1, \ldots, x_n \in \mathcal{X}$, and consider the optimization problem

$$\min_{f \in \mathcal{F}} D(f(x_1), \dots, f(x_n)) + P(\|f\|_{\mathcal{F}}^2),$$
(2)

where P is nondecreasing and D depends on f only though $f(x_1), \ldots, f(x_n)$. If (2) has a minimizer, then it has a minimizer of the form $f = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i k(\cdot, x_i)$ where $\alpha_i \in \mathbb{R}$. Furthermore, if P is strictly increasing, then every solution of (2) has this form.

Representer Point Selection for Explaining Deep Neural Network

• We can show that

$$f(\mathbf{w}) = P_1 k(\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{w}) + P_2 k(\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{w}) + P_3 k(\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{w}) \dots + P_1 k(\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{w}) + P_2 k(\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{w}) + P_3 k(\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{w}) \dots$$

for some positive $p_1 p_2 p_3 \dots$ and negative $n_1 n_2 n_3 \dots$ and a kernel function k. This shares the form of Representer Theorem in RKHS space.

Representer Point Selection for Explaining Deep Neural Network

• We enhance the understanding of a neural network prediction by pointing to a set of representer points in the training set.

GATIV



train id13033 grizzly bear predicted as grizzly bear



train id21249 polar bear predicted as polar bear



train id12728 grizzly bear predicted as grizzly bear



train id1228 beaver predicted as beaver



Example



train id12742

grizzly bear predicted as

train id20730 pig predicted as pig



Intuition

- Most neural networks can be seen as first performing feature extraction and then performing classification.
- We can view the dot product of the features between two data point as a similarity measure (or a kernel function).
- We show that the prediction of a data point can be written as a linear combination of the similarity between the data point and training instances (under certain conditions).

Illustration



Formal Theorem Statement

Theorem 3.1. Let us denote the neural network prediction function by $\hat{\mathbf{y}}_i = \sigma(\Phi(\mathbf{x}_i, \Theta))$, where $\Phi(\mathbf{x}_i, \Theta) = \Theta_1 \mathbf{f}_i$ and $\mathbf{f}_i = \Phi_2(\mathbf{x}_i, \Theta_2)$. Suppose Θ^* is a stationary point of the optimization problem: $\arg \min_{\Theta} \{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} L(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{y}_i, \Theta)\} + g(||\Theta_1||)\}$, where $g(||\Theta_1||) = \lambda ||\Theta_1||^2$ for some $\lambda > 0$. Then we have the decomposition:

$$\Phi(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{\Theta}^*) = \sum_i^n k(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{x}_i, \alpha_i),$$

where $\alpha_i = \frac{1}{-2\lambda n} \frac{\partial L(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{y}_i, \Theta)}{\partial \Phi(\mathbf{x}_i, \Theta)}$ and $k(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{x}_i, \alpha_i) = \alpha_i \mathbf{f}_i^T \mathbf{f}_t$, which we call a representer value for \mathbf{x}_i given \mathbf{x}_t .

Proof

- Proof is simple. By taking the gradient to be 0, the weight of last fully connected layer can be written as linear combination of training point features.
- Therefore, the prediction of the testing point is a linear combination of dot product of testing and training point features.

Theorem Interpretation

• The prediction of a testing point is determined by its similarity to positive training images and negative training images. If the feature is closer to positive training images and further away from negative training images, the prediction score will be higher and vice versa.

$f(\mathbf{w}) = P_1 k(\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{w}) + P_2 k(\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{w}) + P_3 k(\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{w}) \cdots$ $+ n_1 k(\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{w}) + n_2 k(\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{w}) + n_3 k(\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{w}) \cdots$

Some Use Cases

Training an Interpretable Model with L2 Regularization $\Theta^* = \arg\min_{\Theta} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i}^{n} L(\mathbf{y}_i, \Phi(\mathbf{x}_i, \Theta)) + \lambda ||\Theta_1||^2$

Some Use Cases

Post-hoc Analysis of a Given Pre-trained Model $\Theta^* \in \arg\min_{\Theta} \left\{ \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i}^{n} L(\Phi(\mathbf{x}_i, \Theta_{given}), \Phi(\mathbf{x}_i, \Theta)) + \lambda ||\Theta_1||^2 \right\}$ for any $\Theta^* \in \arg\min_{\Theta} L(\Phi(\mathbf{x}_i, \Theta_{given}), \Phi(\mathbf{x}_i, \Theta))$, we have $\sigma(\Phi(\mathbf{x}_i, \Theta^*)) = \sigma(\Phi(\mathbf{x}_i, \Theta_{given}))$.

Experiments

- 1. Visualizations of Positive/Negative Representer Points
- 2. Misclassification Analysis
- 3. Sensitivity Map Decomposition
- 4. Dataset Debugging
- 5. Computational Cost / Numerical Stability

Datasets: CIFAR10, Animals with Attributes (AwA)

Positive and Negative Representer Points (1)



- Positive Representer Points (Excitatory)
 - Positive global sample importance + Positive feature similarity
 - Negative global sample importance + Negative feature similarity
- Negative Representer Points (Inhibitory)
 - Negative global sample importance + Positive feature similarity
 - Positive global sample importance + Negative feature similarity

Positive and Negative Representer Points (2)

train id12742

grizzly bear predicted as

grizzly bear

Visualization on AwA Dataset _





train id21249 polar bear predicted as polar bear



train id13033 grizzly bear predicted as grizzly bear



train id1228 beaver predicted as



train id12728 grizzly bear predicted as arizzly bear

OSITIVE

train id20730 pig predicted as



test id5727 rhinoceros predicted as rhinoceros











train id8471 elephant predicted as



train id23304 rhinoceros predicted as

train id23687

rhinoceros predicted as rhinoceros

Example





EGATIV





train id23336

rhinoceros predicted as

rhinoceros

train id8518 elephant predicted as elephant



VEGAT



train id29490











OSITIVE

Making Sense of Misclassifications

- Can we understand why the model made a misclassification?



Sensitivity Map Decomposition (1)

- Sensitivity Map: indication of how each feature influences the prediction
 - Saliency maps (Simonyan et al. 2013), LRP (Bach et al. 2015), Integrated Gradients (Sundararajan et al. 2017), SmoothGrad (Smilkov et al. 2017) etc.





Samples taken from Simonyan et al., Sundararajan et al.

Sensitivity Map Decomposition (2)

- Can we decompose sensitivity map using representer values, in terms of each training points?



Sensitivity Map Decomposition (3)





Sensitivity Map on Test

Test Image id4399

Sensitivity Map on Test



train id29490 train id29746 zebra predicted as zebra zebra predicted as zebra



Decomposed Attribution

Decomposed Attribution

zebra predicted as zebra

train id18051

moose predicted as moose

train id29708



train id29372

zebra predicted as zebra

Decomposed Attribution





Decomposed Attribution









train id29142 zebra predicted as zebra



Decomposed Attribution



train id18082 moose predicted as moose







Decomposed Attribution

train id18232

moose predicted as moose

train id18411

moose predicted as moose

Decomposed Attribution



Decomposed Attribution

Dataset Debugging (1)



- Given a training dataset with corrupted labels, can we correct them?
- And with the corrected dataset, can we increase the test accuracy?

Dataset Debugging (2)

- Result on CIFAR10
 - Binary classification of class automobile vs horse
 - Logistic regression model
 - Select training points with higher absolute value of α_i



Computational Cost and Numerical Stability (1)

- Can the values be computed in an efficient manner?
 - Important for scaling up / real-time computation

- Are computed values numerically stable?
 - Possible issues with downstream tasks

Computational Cost and Numerical Stability (2)

- Computational cost result on CIFAR10 and AwA dataset
 - Randomly selected 50 test points to compute influence function / representer values for all training points.

	Influence Function (Koh et al. 2017)		Representer Points (Ours)	
Dataset	Fine-Tuning	Computation	Fine-Tuning	Computation
CIFAR10 AwA	0 0	267.08 ± 248.20 172.71 ± 32.63	7.09 ± 0.76 12.41 ± 2.37	0.10 ± 0.08 0.19 ± 0.12

Measured in seconds

Computational Cost and Numerical Stability (3)

- Numerical stability result on CIFAR10 dataset
 - Randomly selected 1000 test points to compute influence function / representer values for all training points



Summary

- We prove that the deep neural network prediction of a test point can be decomposed into a linear combination of representer values of each training point.
- We illustrate the usefulness of the formulation in various use cases.
- We show that it is computationally efficient and suitable for real-time applications.

For more information ...

- Paper on Arxiv : <u>https://arxiv.org/pdf/1811.09720.pdf</u>
- Code on Github : <u>https://github.com/chihkuanyeh/Representer_Point_Selection</u>

Questions

References

Sundararajan, Mukund, Ankur Taly, and Qiqi Yan. "Axiomatic attribution for deep networks." *Proceedings of the 34th International Conference on Machine Learning-Volume 70*. JMLR. org, 2017.

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Smilkov, Daniel, et al. "Smoothgrad: removing noise by adding noise." arXiv preprint arXiv:1706.03825 (2017).

Koh, Pang Wei, and Percy Liang. "Understanding black-box predictions via influence functions." *Proceedings of the 34th International Conference on Machine Learning-Volume 70. JMLR. org*, 2017.

Appendix

Proof. Note that for any stationary point, the gradient of the loss with respect to Θ_1 is equal to 0. We therefore have

$$\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}\frac{\partial L(\mathbf{x}_{i},\mathbf{y}_{i},\mathbf{\Theta})}{\partial\mathbf{\Theta}_{1}} + 2\lambda\mathbf{\Theta}_{1}^{*} = 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \mathbf{\Theta}_{1}^{*} = -\frac{1}{2\lambda n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}\frac{\partial L(\mathbf{x}_{i},\mathbf{y}_{i},\mathbf{\Theta})}{\partial\mathbf{\Theta}_{1}} = \sum_{i=1}^{n}\alpha_{i}\mathbf{f}_{i}^{T} \quad (1)$$

where $\alpha_i = -\frac{1}{2\lambda n} \frac{\partial L(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{y}_i, \Theta)}{\partial \Phi(\mathbf{x}_i, \Theta)}$ by the chain rule. We thus have that

$$\Phi(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{\Theta}^*) = \mathbf{\Theta}_1^* \mathbf{f}_t = \sum_{i=1}^n k(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{x}_i, \alpha_i),$$
(2)

where $k(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{x}_i, \alpha_i) = \alpha_i \mathbf{f}_i^T \mathbf{f}_t$ by simply plugging in the expression (1) into (2).